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THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
GEORGE F. ARPS, *Dean*

THE last issue of the Bulletin listed a number of outstanding educators who have accepted the invitation to speak at the 1928 Ohio State Educational Conference. In the interim, the program committee has secured acceptances from several other men of national renown. J. Paul Goode, professor of geography at the University of Chicago, and O. T. Corson, lecturer at the Western College for Women at Oxford, Ohio, formerly State Director of Education in Ohio, will speak at the general session, Saturday morning, April 14. All the sectional programs have not yet been completed, but the list of out-of-state speakers for various sections includes:

Alphonse Iannelli, Chicago Art Institute—Art Section.

F. B. Knight, University of Iowa—Educational and Intelligence Tests Section.

Lois Hayden Meek, educational secretary of the American Association of University Women—Elementary-Teachers Section.

Katherine Blunt, University of Chicago—Home Economics Section.

Grant M. Hyde, University of Wisconsin—Journalism Section.

P. H. Hagboldt, University of Chicago—Modern Language Section.

Francis G. Blair, Illinois State Superintendent of Public Instruction and Former President of the National Education Association—Parent-Teacher Association Section.

George F. Womrath, business superintendent of schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota—School Business Officials' Section.

April 12, 13, 14 *Reserve the dates*

Columbus

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Educational Research Bulletin

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE MUNICIPAL UNIVERSITY IN THE UNITED STATES[1]

R. H. ECKELBERRY
Ohio State University

A SURVEY of the history of school education in the western world from the early Middle Ages to the present, with particular reference to the United States, reveals, among others, two outstanding tendencies. These are, first, extension of educational opportunity to successively larger proportions of the population and, second, secularization of education.

EXTENSION OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

During the early Middle Ages, school education was, in general, confined to a very small part of the population—chiefly the clergy. The great majority of both the nobility and the peasantry were illiterate. Moreover, the schooling open to the "educated" classes was quite limited in amount and poor in quality, according to modern standards. From that time to the present—under the influence of various intellectual and social movements, such as the revival of learning in the later Middle Ages, the fifteenth century Renaissance, the Protestant and Catholic Reformations, the rise of nationalism, the growth of democratic sentiment, and the industrial revolution—educational opportunity has been extended until, in the more enlightened and progressive countries, the opportunity for an elementary education has become universal.

In the United States, while the opportunity for an elementary education has become universal, the privilege of a secondary and higher education has also been made available to larger and larger groups of the population. During the colonial period, secondary education was distinctly aristocratic in character. It was confined to a small part of the population because the Latin grammar schools, which had been transplanted from England, usually charged tuition and because the education they provided was of a narrow classical type that met the needs of only the few—the leisure and professional classes, and more particularly those preparing for the ministry.

Beginning about the time of the Revolutionary War, the Latin grammar school was rapidly replaced by the academy. This type of school arose to meet the needs of the great and increasing number of boys and girls who needed an education beyond that given by the elementary school, but whose requirements were not met by the traditional classical curriculum. Although the broadened curriculum, appealing to a much wider

[1]This is the first of a series of articles to be published in the Bulletin under this general title.

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group of the population, meant a considerable extension of the opportunity for secondary education, the tuition required by the academies generally made a secondary education prohibitive to the economically less-favored classes.

The last hundred years has seen the development in this country of a new type of secondary school, the high school. It is public, free, and common, and therefore extends the privilege of a secondary education to many hundreds of thousands who otherwise would have been unable to go beyond the elementary school. By means of elective studies and parallel courses, it has also broadened its curriculum to meet the needs of ever-widening groups of our people. At the present time, we find one person in each forty of our population attending a secondary school.

Not less striking has been the extension of the privilege of a higher education during the same period. The colonial colleges, like the Latin grammar schools which were preparatory to them, charged relatively high fees and provided a curriculum that met the needs of only a small group. Their enrollment, therefore, was small. The development of the state universities has been a most important factor in changing these conditions. From the early years of the nineteenth century to the present, these institutions have occupied an increasingly important place in our educational system. Supported largely by public funds, they ask practically nothing for tuition fees, and thus a college education has been made possible for many thousands who otherwise would have been deprived of it. Furthermore, the colleges and universities—both state and private—like the secondary schools, have broadened their curricula to meet the needs of successively larger proportions of the population. The Morrill Act of 1862 and its supplementary legislation which provided for Federal and state support of colleges designed especially to provide education for the industrial classes, has been a most important influence in this process of democratizing higher education. For each 155 persons in the United States today one is attending a college, university, or professional school.

SECULARIZATION OF EDUCATION

Of almost equal importance with the extension of education to all classes of the people has been the secularization of education. In the early Middle Ages, education was confined largely to the clergy, was administered by the church, and had as its principal object training for a religious life. It is not far from the truth to say that, during this period, education was of the church, by the church, and for the church.

Practically the same movements which brought about the extension of educational opportunity, have caused schools of all grades to become more and more secular in purpose and in control. The English colonies in America were settled during the seventeenth century, a period when western Europe was torn by sectarian bitterness and conflict. A large fraction of the early colonists came to America at that time to escape religious persecution. Their elementary and secondary schools and colleges reflected the dominant religious interest then and were strongly sectarian.

During the eighteenth century, due to various causes, the sectarian spirit waned. The nineteenth century then saw established in each of the states a public elementary-school system which was not only free and common, but also non-sectarian in curriculum and chiefly secular in purpose.

The secondary school, likewise, has become secularized. The Latin grammar school of colonial days, although often controlled by civil authorities, was as sectarian in spirit as the elementary school. The academy, which rapidly replaced it following the Revolution, was distinctly religious but usually non-sectarian in character. The American high school, which has developed since about 1825, has been the dominant type of secondary school in this country from about 1860. Being a part of the public-school system, an extension upward of the public elementary school, it shares its secular character.

In the field of higher education, the denominational institution occupies a relatively more important position today than it does in either the elementary or secondary field. Here also, however, the trend is distinctly secular. Some denominational colleges have become non-denominational in control; others, while remaining under the control of a denomination have tended to reduce the emphasis on sectarianism.

Just as in the elementary and secondary fields, the chief contribution toward secularization has been the establishment of public schools, so in the field of higher education the most important contribution has been the development of the state universities. These, like the high school, are a product of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. They have played an increasingly important part in our educational affairs, nearly every state now having one or more. Since they are essentially parts of the public-school systems of their respective states, they share the secular character of the public schools.

The United States has a system of education, reaching from the lowest grade of the elementary school through the university, which is practically free to all, is attended by an ever-increasing proportion of our population, and is secular in control and content. This condition has been attained by the establishment of schools and universities which are controlled by state and city governments and supported by public funds.

TABLE I

MUNICIPAL UNIVERSITIES IN THE UNITED STATES

Present Name of Institution	Founded	First under Municipal Control	Established as Municipal University
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
College of Charleston....	1790	1837	1837
University of Louisville.....	1837	1846	1907
College of the City of New York.....	1849	1849	1854*
Hunter College of the City of New York	1870	1870	1888†
University of Cincinnati....	1873	1873	1874
University of City of Toledo	1875	1884	1909
University of Akron.....	1872	1913	1913
College of the City of Detroit	1915	1915	1923
Municipal University of Wichita.....	1892	1926	1926

*Authorized to confer the degrees in 1854, but not given the name of college until 1866.

†Established a course leading to a B. A. degree in 1888, but not a course that was fully recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York until 1908.

THE MUNICIPAL UNIVERSITY AS RELATED TO THE EXTENSION AND SECULARIZATION OF EDUCATION

During the past ninety years, another type of educational institution has developed which in this country represents an important contribution to both the extension of educational opportunity and the secularization of education. This also belongs to the increasingly important class of educational institutions under public control and is known as the

municipal university.[1] Its establishment has meant the extension of educational opportunity because it has required not only low fees, or none at all, but also, to a student in the city, the opportunity to live at home while attending college. The municipal university represents the secularization of education because, being supported by city taxes and controlled by public authorities, it is really a part of the public-school system.

Table I gives a list of municipal universities existing at present in the United States. The dates of their founding, their coming under control of their respective cities, and their becoming full municipal universities are also given. It is believed that this list is complete. It is based on careful perusal of the literature on the subject, conversations with officials of all the institutions named except the last, the statistics of college and universities compiled by the United States Bureau of Education, and correspondence with that bureau.

The purpose of this series of articles is to present some of the more important facts concerning the origin and development of the American municipal university, with special reference to its development in Ohio, and to point out its significance in our educational history. For purposes of this study, a municipal university is defined as an institution of learning which (1) is controlled either by a board appointed by the municipal authorities, by the city board of education, or by a board representing both the city board of education and the municipal authorities; (2) is supported in whole or in large part by local public funds; (3) requires for entrance, graduation from a standard high school or equivalent training; (4) gives one or more standard courses in arts and science leading to degrees; and (5) may have, in addition to a college of liberal arts, one or more professional or graduate schools.[2] It is purposed, in succeeding articles in this series, to describe the development of certain representative institutions in this list, with chief emphasis on those in this State, and to discuss the characteristics and significance of this type of institution.

SOME BASES FOR THE SELECTION OF JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS IN MATHEMATICS

C. E. PIETERS
Champion Junior High School, Columbus

IN THIS study a comparative analysis and evaluation was made of textbooks in junior high-school mathematics. The chief points considered were: (1) content of material in arithmetic, formal algebra, intuitive geometry, and numerical trigonometry; (2) organization of subject-matter—its psychological and pedagogical presentation; and (3) the psychological and philosophical bases of material and its presentation, such as stimulation of growth in mathematical abilities, stimulation of self-dependence in thought, and promotion of a social democracy.

[1] Some of these institutions are called colleges. Following the current American practice, I shall not attempt to distinguish sharply between college and university but shall use the latter term in an inclusive sense.

[2] This definition follows closely that given by P. R. Kolbe in "The Present Status of the American Municipal University," *School and Society*, 1:484-86, April 3, 1915.

The study was undertaken mainly to offer some suggestions to junior high-school teachers, supervisors, principals, and superintendents regarding the analysis and choice of mathematics textbooks, and to call the attention of writers to the qualifications of a suitable textbook, one which is up-to-date in subject-matter and pedagogy. The writer also desired to show parents that the work in junior high-school mathematics is thoughtfully and skillfully selected and organized, according to the best interests of their children.

Two types of information were used in the study. The first was procured directly from junior high-school principals in Ohio. By means of questionnaires, their practices as to the selection and use of textbooks in mathematics were determined. The second type was procured from a critical analysis of six series of mathematics books—eighteen in all—published for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.

From the sixty-four persons to whom questionnaires were sent, thirty-seven replies were received. Twenty reported that they used the ordinary common school arithmetics in the seventh and eighth grades, followed by straight algebra in the ninth grade. Seventeen schools were using some one series of special junior high-school books. Those used in part, or in their entirety, were Drushell and Withers, Gugle, Taylor and Allen, Stone, Thorndike, Hart, and Wentworth-Smith-Brown.

Of the twenty schools that were still using a common-school arithmetic, followed by straight algebra, thirteen desired a change of text to the special textbooks for the junior high-school grades. Six of this group did not contemplate a change, and one was undecided.

Some significant reasons for the change from a purely arithmetic text were: (1) The textbook in use was not suited to the idea of the junior high-school program. (2) Sufficient attention was not given to intuitive geometry. (3) The straight algebra was unsatisfactory in not being sufficiently interesting. Among those who did not desire a change to the special junior high-school textbooks, one gave as his reason that he was opposed to fused or correlated mathematics. Some few declared that the texts in use, meaning the arithmetic and the straight algebra, were satisfactory since they were logical; had practical problems; and stressed the

TABLE I

PRINCIPALS' EVALUATIONS OF JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEXTS IN MATHEMATICS

(1)	Yes (2)	No (3)	Undecided (4)
Problems too difficult	4	11	2
Problems too easy	2	12	3
Organization of subject-matter, logical	12	3	1
Organization of subject-matter, pedagogical	10	3	3
Organization in accord with psychology of pubescent youth	5	7	5
Content in keeping with social needs	7	3	2
Problems chosen from standpoint of practical use	9	6	2
Unification of algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and arithmetic	9	5	3
Vocabulary too difficult	4	13	0
Language easily understood	10	5	0
Too much material to be covered	7	7	3
Practice material sufficient in quantity	5	11	1
Practice material sufficiently varied	9	5	2
Practice material properly graduated in difficulty	8	7	0
Evidence of regard for the results of scientific investigations	7	4	6
Useful tabular and graphical devices in sufficiency	8	6	2
Principles developed inductively	9	4	2
Answer books for teachers can be obtained	12	1	0
On the whole the pupils like the text	7	6	1

equation, graphs, and formulas. One wrote, "We have tried in part the mixed mathematics, but came back to the algebra as least confusing and best for future work."

The principals in whose schools the special junior high-school texts were used were asked to give their merits. The results are set forth in Table I. They show that the majority of principals are favorably inclined to the interrelated course in mathematics for the junior high school. Many have developed keen interest and appreciation for the new content, organization, and methods in the texts.

In further pursuit of this study, we found that at least fifteen series of mathematics textbooks written especially for the three-year junior high school were available. For the present purpose, however, only six of these series—eighteen books—were chosen. These were by the following: Gugle; Hart; Schorling and Clark; Stone; Taylor and Allen; and Wentworth, Smith, and Brown.[1] They were chosen because answers to the questionnaire showed that all except that by Stone were used more generally in Ohio than any other. The Stone series had a high frequency in other states, as was reported in the study recently made by Edward H. Worthington.[2]

The books were scanned page by page and the seventeen points given in Tables II and III were taken as the bases of comparison. The first five—the number of pages devoted respectively to arithmetic, algebra, intuitive geometry, numerical trigonometry, and demonstrative geometry were suggested in recommendations of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements. The other points considered in Table II were the pages of standardized or achievement tests, supplementary or optional material, obsolete material, historical material, and answers. Table III shows the amount of illustrative material in the books—pictures or halftones, charts, tabulations or other diagrams, plane and solid figures, and graphs and tables. These points are in no sense intended to be all-inclusive, but rather typical and suggestive.

Each author has three books to a series—Book I for the seventh grade, Book II for the eighth grade, and Book III for the ninth grade. The range of data of the books examined is from 1917 to 1925 (see footnotes to Table II). Table II shows that there is a wide difference in subject-matter for each of the three grades. However, all of the writers include courses in arithmetic, algebra, and intuitive geometry; trigonometry is offered by all except Taylor and Allen. Gugle and Wentworth-Smith-Brown are the only series to give a preliminary insight into demonstrative geometry. There is no uniformity as to what topics should be included in each grade; this is not adverse criticism, however, for the National Committee on the Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education has given five different plans for the distribution of material in the three school years.

The organization and presentive features of the books are found to be as diversified as the contents, but each series purports to carry out the idea of reform in aims and pedagogical treatment of subject-matter to suit the junior high-school pupils.

[1] Gugle, Marie, *Modern Junior Mathematics*, New York, Gregg Publishing Company; Hart, Walter W., *Junior High School Mathematics*, Boston, D. C. Heath Company; Schorling, Raleigh, and Clark, J. R., *Modern Mathematics*, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, World Book Company; Stone, J. C., *The New Mathematics*, New York, Benj. H. Sanborn; Taylor, E. H., and Allen, Fiske, *Junior High School Mathematics*, New York, Henry Holt and Company; Wentworth, George, Smith, D. S., Brown, J. C., New York, Ginn and Company.

[2] "Current Practice in Junior High School Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, 19:72–76, February, 1926.

TABLE II

PERCENT OF PAGES DEVOTED TO CERTAIN ITEMS IN SIX SERIES OF JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL MATHEMATICS TEXTBOOKS

Items Considered	Gugle*	Hart†	Schorling and Clark‡	Stone§	Taylor and Allen‖	Wentworth-Smith-Brown ¶
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Arithmetic:						
I	83	59	39	82	58	44**
II		65	74	72	48	58
III				14		
Algebra:						
I					2	
II	14	19	4	8	32	42
III	82	96	90	61	100††	40
Intuitive geometry:						
I	17	41	60	17	40	55
II	86	16	17	16	17	
III		1	1	15		
Numerical trigonometry:						
I						
II			4	3		
III	8	2	6	9		8
Demonstrative geometry:						
I						
II						
III	9					52
Standardized or achievement tests:						
I	3		7			
II			4			
III	6	2	1			
Problems without numbers:						
I	.3					2
II						5
III						
Vocabulary or symbol tests:						
I	.6					
II	.5		.4			
III		.3				.7
Supplementary or optional material:						
I			4	5		4
II		3	2			
III	17	8				
Obsolete material:						
I						
II						
III		2			2	
Historical material:						
I	.4					
II						
III	3					
Answers:						
I			2			
II			8			
III						

*I, 1924; II, 1920; III, 1925. †I, 1921; II, 1922; III, 1923. ‡I, II, III, 1924. §I, II, III, 1921. ‖I, II, 1919; III, 1922. ¶I, II, 1917; III, 1918. **Books I and II, 1925 copies were not available for this study. ††For first half of ninth grade only.

All the books in one way or another accomplish something in these respects, some to a greater degree than others.

The older writers have not deviated entirely from the conventional treatment of traditional material. The more recent authors, on the other hand, have caught the spirit and significance of the junior high-school bases. In addition, there should be a philosophy of education or a carefully developed general theory to motivate action and to supply guidance in practice, for where there is no vision the people perish. Philosophy and science constitute the means of defining and solving the problems of life; and if the work and activities of the school are to be of aid in the

TABLE III

AMOUNT OF SPACE DEVOTED TO ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL IN SIX SERIES OF JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL MATHEMATICS TEXTBOOKS

Items Considered	Gugle	Hart	Schorling and Clark	Stone	Taylor and Allen	Wentworth-Smith-Brown
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Number of pictures or halftones:						
I	13	.....	28	2	3	12
II	16	3	5	2	3	4
III	10	.....	.....	4	.....	9
Number of charts, tabulations, or other diagrams:						
I	81	32	77	47	66	70
II	67	48	67	40	73	59
III	37	42	72	49	9	62
Number of plane and solid figures:						
I	15	52	119	55	91	144
II	209	33	65	47	47	26
III	50	54	79	134	8	244
Number of graphs:						
I	16	9	26	17	4	2
II	32	3	7	11	8	10
III	21	11	27	9	11	6
Number of tables:						
I	60	4	21	6	18	11
II	20	28	26	11	22	24
III	4	1	5	4	.....	8

idea in its various ramifications, and their work stands out as contributing in a noteworthy way to the new education.

In seeking reliable bases for textbook evaluation, as for other forms of educational effort, the child and its environment are the factors which should receive first consideration. Scientific investigation, in the light of recent developments in psychology, is the means for determining these promotion of civilization, they must fit in with the general life scheme.

CONCLUSIONS

Certain questions should be asked in analyzing a junior high-school mathematics textbook. These are: What are the educational theories that are manifest throughout the work? Is its essence growth and expansion of child life? How does the book appear in the light of the

new education? The following principles in answer to these questions are suggested:

1. The controlling theory in the teaching of mathematics in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades is to stimulate the mental growth of the pupils through efforts to understand, to appreciate, and to act in accord with the interrelation of all human interests.
2. Pupil initiative and activity are basic to present and permanent interest.
3. The general values to be realized through the teaching of mathematics in the junior high school are utilitarian, disciplinary, and cultural.
4. Problems, in order to be appropriate from the child's point of view must be suitable to his capacity and experience and rich in elements of immediate interest.
5. Richness and flexibility or applicability of meanings are dependent upon varied presentation.
6. New principles are more intelligently grasped through a presentation in which the inductive method is predominant.
7. Quantitative and space perception is of vital significance to the child's present and future life.
8. The general meaning and the worth of mathematics are best realized through the interrelated plan of presentation.

A STUDY OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS IN OHIO

Dr. C. C. McCracken, of the Department of School Administration, and C. D. Hoel, of the Bexley School, recently made a study of the traits and qualifications of school board members in Ohio. This has been reported in an article appearing in the *American School Board Journal* for December.

Data for the study were secured by means of answers to questionnaires which were received from thirty-five city, fifteen exempted-village, seventy-nine county, and sixty village and rural districts. The general types of information sought dealt with the education, occupation, home ownership, interest in the public schools, attendance at educational meetings, community interests, degree of open-mindedness as rated by the superintendents, length of service, and traits and qualifications desirable for membership on the school board. It was found that 43 percent of the members had eight years or less of schooling; 29 percent had from one to four years in high school; and 28 percent had some college work. Out of the 931 members included in the study, 154, or 16 percent have college degrees. Of the group, 49 percent were farmers, 20 percent business men, and 5 percent were classified as homemakers. To measure the interest of the members in the public schools, information was secured regarding past experience or relationships which were assumed to be indicative of interest. In this connection, it was found that 241, or approximately 25 percent of the board members had served as teachers in the public schools, and that 73 percent of them had children enrolled in the elementary school, high school, or college. Church and club membership were used as the criteria of community interest, and it was found that approximately 85 percent of the entire group held membership in some religious organization. In length of years in service, the median number for the group included was 4.5 with a range of from 1 to 36 years.

(Continued on page 21)

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ON THE USE OF TEXTBOOKS

WE are told from time to time that textbooks have a much greater importance in American schools than in the schools of Europe. The reason for this difference, so we are informed, is that our teachers are less well trained. They do not know enough to venture far from shore. Their general knowledge of the subjects which they teach is enveloped in a fog, and so they cling to the haven of the text.

The comparison of our teacher training with that of Europe is a matter which may be left to the experts. It may be pointed out, however, that our fondness for textbooks may have other sources besides ignorance or helplessness. In part, at least, this predilection may spring from misdirected piety. The business of the schools is supposed to be limited to the preservation or perpetuation of our civilization. Consequently, we should teach the subjects in the curriculum as we teach the catechism, not to encourage a spirit of independence and inquiry, but to insure a set of correct responses.

Principals and superintendents sometimes feel it incumbent upon them to admonish teachers to stick closely to the textbook. It is a fine thing for a teacher to have a rich intellectual background, provided that he makes no use of it. The disposition to engage in explorations beyond the limits of the textbooks is regarded as evidence of intellectual frivolity, if not of irreverence or bolshevism.

Our worship of the textbook, then, appears to be a joint product of plain ignorance and an ignorant veneration of tradition. A combination of this sort can scarcely fail to make the world safe for the textbook. Some persons will doubtless be disturbed by this outlook, but they may be reassured by being told that the modern textbook can present a certificate of character to show that it is entitled to confidence. The older textbooks were to a considerable extent the product of guesswork, but our up-to-date textbooks aim to leave nothing to chance or opinion. They have the indorsement of science. Every precaution is taken to make sure that the evil which they contain is kept below the danger line of one-half of one percent. We need no longer fear to take our textbooks straight.

We are all aware of the efforts that are being made at present to construct textbooks on scientific lines. Objective tests are employed to keep the language of the text within the range of comprehensibility, and to determine what material shall be selected, in what order of difficulty the contents are to be arranged, and how provision is to be made for drills and reviews. It would be strange, therefore, if our modern textbooks were not much more serviceable as instruments for imparting a certain body of desirable information than were those of the past, nor would it be strange, if this advance in textbook-making were to strengthen the old idolatry. If the

modern textbook has such high scientific sanction, why not follow it without deviation? The old combination of ignorance and traditionalism thus gives promise of growing into a triple alliance for safeguarding the supremacy of the textbook.

Perhaps one might hazard the suggestion that the appeal to science in the present case settles nothing in particular. Science, like the textbook itself, is only a tool. It can be used for all sorts of purposes, and the use of scientific principles in textbook-making may be for the sake of a questionable aim. The fundamental question in the present case is—if a certain amount of exaggeration may be permitted—whether the textbook is written to make the teacher unnecessary or whether it is written to make the textbook itself unnecessary. In other words, does it intend to limit the function of the teacher to the business of "learning" the pupil what is in the book, or does it aim to assist the teacher in drawing extensively on his own resources in order that the contents of the textbook may be translated into terms of "vital" experience? Is the textbook intended primarily to develop certain skills and to facilitate the acquisition of a certain body of factual knowledge, or is it designed chiefly to cultivate appreciation on the basis of insight, the power to think in terms of a given subject-matter?

That there has been much improvement in textbook-making may be cheerfully conceded. But, this improvement should be taken for what it is worth. A good textbook is like a well-trained servant who knows his place. Overemphasis of the textbook is evidence that the controlling purpose is to give a more or less automatic control over a certain body of subject-matter. Such overemphasis not only fails to develop intelligence, save incidentally, but may actually weaken intellectual power. A physician once made a remark to the effect that it is an open question whether the practice of medicine, taken through its entire history, has saved as many lives as it has destroyed. It is of course impossible to decide such a question, just as it is impossible to ascertain to what extent the intellectual power of children has been destroyed by the wrong use of textbooks. Teachers are held even less responsible than physicians in the practice of their profession, but the time may come, as Dewey once suggested, when it will be possible to bring suit for educational malpractice.

B. H. BODE.

A helpful guide for student-teachers has been prepared by a subcommittee of the Committee on Teacher Training of the International Kindergarten Union.[1] The material contained in this booklet was submitted to various sorts of criticism before it took its final form. The series of lessons is so arranged that the student is introduced to the various phases of the training before her by the observation of teaching and participation in the presentation of the lesson which may involve direct or indirect contact with the pupil, as well as by practice teaching. The various activities included in the programs of the kindergarten and primary grades are considered in turn. Questions which may serve as guides to the observation period are suggested first, a list of references is given, and ways of participating are followed by suggestions for the plan-

[1] International Kindergarten Union. *Practice Teaching: A Suggestive Guide for Student Teachers.* Washington, D. C., International Kindergarten Union, 1926. 63 pp.

ning of the lesson which the student herself is to teach. The scheme seems excellent: problems involved in the lesson to be observed are suggested, the student next may learn what various writers have said about the group of activities, then she finds ways of sharing in the work, and finally attempts a lesson of this sort herself.

THE STATUS OF EDUCATION AS AN ACADEMIC SUBJECT IN AMERICAN COLLEGES[1]

ELBRIDGE C. GROVER
Cleveland Heights Schools

CUBBERLEY, in his recent history of education states that, in 1920 some four hundred colleges in the United States were offering courses in educational history, procedure, and administration. "Many of them maintained large and important professional Schools of Education for the more scientific study of the subject, and for the training of leaders for the service of the nation's schools."[2] Since education has assumed such importance, it is worth while to investigate the courses and to discover the preparation which is being given the teachers who are educating the twenty-five million school children.

The 1920-21 *Educational Directory* issued by the United States Bureau of Education tabulates 588 colleges in the United States and 591 heads of departments of education.[3] An analysis of the list gives a clue to this apparent discrepancy, for many institutes and state institutions for negroes, which are not listed under the colleges, have departments of education. Then too, if a college offers two courses in education, although under the same person who teaches all the courses in ethics, pedagogy, physiology, botany, and physical culture, it is listed as having a department of education.

The material for this part of the study was obtained by going through the catalogues of more than four hundred colleges. These catalogues were found in the Widener Library at Harvard University, the New York Public Library, and the special catalogue library in Bryson Hall, Teachers College, Columbia University. The latter offered the largest number of catalogues, and here most of the tabulating was done. The data represent a rather complete compilation of all the courses given in education in the ordinary rank-and-file colleges.

The courses in educational departments had, of course, no strictly uniform titles, and, therefore, each subject-title in the various catalogues had to be classified under the head of what seemed to be the chief content of the course. For instance. Sweet Briar College offers one course in the theory and practice of education which includes everything the college gives in educational work. Such a course comes naturally under the principles of education. In like manner, under educational sociology are placed such courses as social aspects of education, education for social service, and education as a social function. One of the oddest

[1] Excluding professional teachers colleges and graduate schools of education.

[2] Cubberley, E. B. *The History of Education*. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920. p. 827.

[3] This was the latest Directory available.

titles under this heading was that of a year's course given at Kentucky University, "American Ethnic Elements"—"a comparative study of the principal racial elements represented among American people, their characteristics, and contributions in relation to public education." Some

TABLE I

VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS IN AMERICAN COLLEGES*

Subject	Number of Courses	Semester Hours
(1)	(2)	(3)
History of education	328	1,430
Educational psychology	205	705
Principles of education	193	658
Secondary education	155	563
Educational administration	167	551
Practice teaching	120	417
General psychology	116	405
General methods	153	385
Tests and measurements	85	271
Theory of teaching	85	270
School management	84	250
Philosophy of education	78	244
Child study	80	228
Educational sociology	61	198
Miscellaneous	55	159
High-school methods	39	144
School hygiene	46	131
Elementary education	29	124
Seminar in education	26	94
Rural education	30	90
Observation of teaching	31	81
Elementary-school methods	33	80
Introduction to education	38	80
Religious education	23	72
Pedagogy	23	72
Adolescence	22	68
School surveys	16	54
Educational classics	19	50
Industrial education	14	47
Vocational education	17	45
Experimental education	14	44
Ethics	12	38
Learning process	12	34
High-school curriculum	15	34
Genetic psychology	9	28
Psychology of high-school subjects	9	22
Junior high schools	8	19
Educational statistics	6	14
Foreign-school systems	0	0

*Excluding professional teachers colleges and graduate schools of education.

colleges listed a course called "Educational Classics" which was separate from, and additional to, the history of education. The course in history includes the general history of education, history of education in modern times, the history of education in the United States, historical tendencies or movements in education, and many other phases.

Fifteen courses in religious education were noted. A modern conception of education as a religious influence occurs in the full year course in pedagogy given at the Washington Missionary College, Takoma Park, Washington. The words of the catalogue are worth quoting:

> In order that the outgoing missionary may be a successful teacher of the Word as well as a preacher, plans have been made to give him a knowledge of the principles that underlie all teaching. If there is any place in the world where a person needs to understand the laws of the mind, and so be able to influence the individual, it is in the foreign missionary field.

The various courses seem to fall naturally into thirty-seven categories. These are classified in Table I. The name of the courses are listed in Column 1; the number of colleges offering each subject, in Column 2; and the number of semester hours, in Column 3.

It was difficult to obtain any accurate conception of the scope of the courses in these colleges from a mere classification of the number and kind of courses listed in the catalogues; first, because even a superficial glance at a single curriculum showed that the different subjects were of relative importance and, second, because the time element for each subject differed in various colleges. The first difficulty was met by evaluating the relative importance of a subject in the curriculum on the basis of the number of semester

hours devoted to it. The second difficulty was overcome by devising and defining a unit of measure.

One semester hour was taken as the unit, and this was defined as one hour a week for half of a full academic year of nine months. The educational courses in colleges, particularly in the Middle West and South, on a quarterly semester basis had to be evaluated in the nearest whole digit using the standard semester hour as a unit of measure. For instance, if a college on the quarter basis had a course in the history of education running two hours a week for the whole year, its equivalent on the semester hour basis would be four units. In like manner all courses were reduced to a semester-hour basis. In Table II and III are given a distribution of the time devoted to all courses and the number of colleges giving these courses. It is seen that the number of semester hours given to education in any one college ranges from 2 to 86, the greatest number having between 20 and 24. The median number of semester hours is 21.5.

To obtain a conception of the importance of the courses in education we may suppose a college whose educational department offers approximately seven courses or twenty-one semester hours of recitations. What courses ought to be included in such a department of education? In an attempt to answer this question the subjects were ranked in order of relative importance. The seven courses having the largest number of semester hours were taken as the content of the average educational curriculum and the number of semester hours in each of these seven courses was divided by the number of semester hours in the smallest among them. This method permitted a reduced unit relation with the original proportion retained. The following gives a fair idea of a year's curriculum offered in the typical college:

Courses in Education	Semester Hours for One Year
General history of education	6
Principles of education	2.5
Methods, general and special	2.5
Educational administration:	
General	2.5
Secondary	2.5
Educational psychology, including tests and measurement	3
Practice teaching and observation, including theory of education and school management	2
Total	21[1]

[1]The two and one-half semester hours means two hours of lectures a week and one hour every other week for a conference.

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGES OFFERING SUBJECTS IN EDUCATION ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF SEMESTER HOURS

Semester Hours	Number of Colleges	Semester Hours	Number of Colleges
(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)
0- 4	14	45-49	7
5- 9	30	50-54	4
10-14	49	55-59	3
15-19	64	60-64	3
20-24	84	65-69	1
25-29	43	70-74	1
30-34	29	75-79	0
35-39	20	80-84	0
40-44	11	85-89	1

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGES OFFERING SUBJECTS IN EDUCATION ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF COURSES

Number of Courses	Colleges	Number of Courses	Colleges
(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)
1	13	10	20
2	19	11	13
3	35	12	13
4	36	13	4
5	31	14	6
6	45	15	1
7	51	16	2
8	40	17	2
9	32	18	1

The immediate conclusion to be drawn from this table is that a relatively high standing is accorded history of education.

It is interesting to note, in Table I, that practice teaching has an important place in these curricula, while the study of adolescence has a minor place. But 68 semester hours are devoted to the latter; 417 semester hours to the former. Eighty-five colleges give courses in tests and measurements making a total of 271 semester hours, or more than 3 semester hours per college. The courses listed as learning process is presented in only twelve colleges, whereas sixty-one colleges give courses in educational sociology, which subject is rapidly growing in popularity.

The fact that the colleges are providing more and more for secondary education and supervisory work is borne out by the fact that elementary education is offered in only twenty-nine colleges while secondary education is given in one hundred and fifty-five colleges and general educational administration, in one hundred sixty-seven. It is characteristically American that no course in foreign contemporary education is given except as it may be touched upon in the general history of education.

The present status of courses in education is almost universally the same as the academic standing of other subjects. In fact, a further study including all the graduate and professional schools of education might establish the fact that education as a professional subject is struggling for the same recognition that law and medicine enjoy. Courses in the history of education are still the most prominent in the field of education and are deemed of sufficient importance to have allotted to them more than twice the time given to educational psychology.

ACTIVITIES CENTERED AROUND THE GENERAL INDUSTRIAL-ARTS LABORATORY[1]

WILLIAM E. WARNER
Ohio State University

A STUDY under way at the present time indicates that there are, in general, three types of interest held by boys and girls who are between twelve and eighteen years of age. The most common of these interests is that of educational exploration. Children want to find out what they can do. The general industrial-arts laboratory offers opportunity to discover abilities and at the same time to carry on a natural interest in things that are industrial. Children also take a great deal of interest in a hobby. This has been called the avocational interest and refers in general to the temporary occupation which one follows without thought of any remuneration. The third of these interests is the occupational interest. Pupils want to know not only what they can do and like to do, but what opportunities are open to them. They want to know all about jobs and how to make money. This, of course, opens up the whole question of information about occupations and training for an occupation. Our main interest in this article is to judge the general industrial-arts laboratory in its ability to offer exploratory, avocational, and occupational activities which will develop the boy.

[1] Third of a series of talks from W. E. A. O.

Today we see a veritable confusion of products from industry in this country. At the present time children are fascinated by airplanes, automobiles, radios, and ships, by buildings in the process of construction, by doing things with machinery, and by going to new places. America is filled with the products of industry. Every home includes devices or articles which somewhere in their development have passed through the hands of a designer, photographer, printer, pattern-maker, molder, machinist, carpenter, finisher, electrician, potter, glazer, textile-worker, food specialist, chemist, agriculturist, or some other member of the thousands in society who serve our daily needs. Any change in a material which increases the value of the material is called an industrial change. A course of study on these changes is known as industrial arts.

We have tried to picture the industrial environment of the youth of today. Now let us examine the average school he attends. A study just completed shows that the large majority of schools in Ohio teach bench woodwork, mechanical drawing, and cabinet-making in the order named and that these schools term this work manual training. I object to this term for four reasons. First, the users of it have four distinctly different notions of its meaning; second, historically, the term referred to the training of the hand; third, it in no way refers to modern-day industry; and last, it refers to no activities other than those involving the notion of construction.

It is thought that there are five kinds of activities which are to be found in a well organized general industrial-arts laboratory.[1] They include experimentation, investigation, construction, observation, and purposeful reading and discussion. These five activities constitute a broader and more modern program than that used in the earlier period of manual training where articles were made in order that the hand could be trained in the tool skills—mainly with woodworking tools. Today we are confronted with more tools than ever, among which we find the micrometer, the hydrometer, the socket wrench, the water meter, the jig, the draw spike, the transformer, and other more or less common tools and devices.

Many simple activities can be carried on in the general industrial-arts laboratory with equipment costing from two to five thousand dollars. Among the more interesting projects are making a pattern to be molded in lead, type metal, aluminum, or brass; making a cement form and pouring the cement to make a garden seat, sundial, side-walk, or steps; disassembling and assembling an automobile engine; testing and charging an automobile or radio storage battery; printing a calling card, sign, poem, form, or letter-head; making a tin cup, cookie cutter, or mail box; making photographic prints, slides, and enlargements; making tracings, blueprints, Van Dykes, and blue-line prints; repairing a leaky faucet, oiling and repairing a door lock, painting a floor, lacquering a piece of furniture or an automobile; installing an electric bell or buzzer, oiling or caring for electrical and other modern appliances about the home. All these activities prove of intense interest to any normal boy.

The technique of trade analysis tends to confuse the work of industrial arts if there are no well-defined objectives or purposes. Any analysis of the specific things that a boy is

[1]Bonser, Frederick G. "Activity Curricula and Industrial Arts," *Journal of Educational Method*, 6:387-91, May, 1927.

to learn, or of a situation in society, should be tempered or judged by criteria based upon sound objectives. As a teacher, parent, or school official, ask yourself the following questions about the project or activity: Does it teach the boy how intelligently to buy an article such as an automobile or radio? What information and training does it give him in the intelligent use of the article after he gets it? What information concerning the occupational opportunities and requirements of industry is brought out? What specific things has he learned to do or repair? Is the activity specifically related to the boy's interests? Who proposed and planned the activity? What is its immediate value? Of what use is the project after it is completed? What correlations with other school, home, or community interests have been developed as a result of the project? In terms of educational, economic, social, physical, and moral growth, how has the boy been benefited by his experience or contact with the activity?

In summary, it should be noted that we first considered the broad interests of the boy who is between twelve and eighteen years of age; second, that his environment as a youth in an industrial America is filled with things of intense interest to him; third, that his school environment, particularly in Ohio, is rapidly changing from a program of manual training to a much broader experience in industrial-arts work; fourth, that these experiences or activities of the growing boy are centered around the general industrial arts laboratory; and fifth, that no teacher should be content unless he judges his work by criteria which are based upon well-defined and tested objectives.

ON THE FIRING LINE

The Fairfielder, the only official and authorized publication of all the public schools in Fairfield County, is an ambitious magazine whose purpose is to further cooperation between the twelve schools in the county system. A letter is published in the Thanksgiving issue from Dr. J. Cayce Morrison, of the New York State Department of Education, in which those responsible for the publication receive well-deserved praise.

The Board of Trustees of Ohio State University has recently created a News Bureau and appointed J. E. Pollard as Director. Among the purposes for which the Bureau is created are: to interpret to the public what the University is doing in education, to cultivate contacts with every community in the State through the medium of the newspaper, and to provide an information service for inquiries of a special nature.

Auglaize County pupils lost 1,608 days on account of sickness during the twenty school days of the October school month. This is an increase of 140 percent over the September loss of 669 days. In comparison with the health situation in the county schools in October a year ago, the report is a very favorable one. Last year's absences, during this month, on account of sickness, were more than 20 percent greater than this year's. The increase is a little greater than the Attendance Department had estimated that it would be. The unusual or rather unexpected increase is credited to the

cases of chicken pox in the St. Johns, Clay Township schools, and the cases of scarlet fever in the New Knoxville Schools. School patrons and others calling at the County Superintendent's office have shown a great deal of interest in the Attendance Officer's school-attendance studies and the health, legal, and illegal absence attendance curves that have been constructed.

A tabulation by departments of the theses and dissertations that have been completed in the College of Education at Ohio State University for the period of December, 1925, to the close of the Summer Quarter of 1927 has just been made. The results of this tabulation are as follows:

Department	Master's Theses	Doctor's Dissertations
History of education.....	1	1
Principles of education...	21	6
Psychology.....	44	9
School administration....	74	6
Total for the period....	140	22

During this period a number of studies were directed by the Bureau of Educational Research staff, but these have been included in the department in which the student majored.

A survey, by means of standard tests, was carried on in the Fremont public schools during the past October. Intelligence, reading, and arithmetic tests were given to pupils in various grades. The Detroit Primary Intelligence Test, Form C, was given in Grades II, III, and IV and the Detroit Alpha Intelligence Test, Form M, in Grades V, VI, VII, VIII, and IX. The Gates Primary Reading Tests were used in Grades II, III, IV, V, and VI. The pupils in Grades II through VI were tested in arithmetic by means of several standard arithmetic tests. The findings, as given in a mimeographed report received from Superintendent C. A. Hudson, indicate that Fremont children, on an average, are normal and should achieve results in the tool subjects tested.

THE EFFECT OF OUTSIDE EMPLOYMENT UPON THE KIND AND AMOUNT OF SCHOOL WORK DONE BY PUPILS

After considerable study, personal interviews with pupils and teachers, and tabulations of marks, the Faculty Committee at West Commerce High School, Cleveland, has been able to make certain conclusions regarding the outside employment of high-school pupils. Comparisons were made between the status of pupils working outside of school and the status of pupils doing no outside work. These pupils all carried practically the same programs and had equivalent probable-learning rates. A comparison was also made of the school work done by pupils who were employed during one semester with the school work of the same pupils who were not employed during another semester. The results of this investigation are briefly summarized here.

A slight tendency toward poorer marks exists among those who are employed outside of school hours. The difference is very slight, however, and in some cases the situation is reversed. Some pupils who have a considerable amount of time to themselves outside of school do not use it wisely. Working in a store, factory, or elsewhere—if conditions are satisfactory—is better than loafing on a street corner or in a poolroom or attending the motion picture theater too frequently.

Personal interviews verify what the tabulation sheets show—that a boy or girl who is physically strong and whose learning rate is normal or

above can work fifteen to eighteen hours per week without seriously affecting his or her school work. On the other hand, there is the pupil who is not strong physically, whose learning rate is below normal, or who is both physically and mentally handicapped who must necessarily seek employment. The Faculty Committee believes that the number of such cases is large enough in West Commerce High School to cause the slightly lower averages or marks among the employed pupils than among the unemployed. Retardation is present in the handicapped group because of outside work. The Committee is therefore convinced that the effect of outside employment upon school work depends upon the individual. The physical condition of each pupil, his home environment, learning rate, and reasons for working—all have a bearing upon the effects of outside employment.

The Committee recommended that the school program be made light for a pupil who is not strong physically nor mentally and who is forced to work outside of school because of economic conditions at home. The pupil who is not handicapped, however, may be allowed to carry a full program while he is also working outside of school.

MISS BLY FRANKS
J. W. CREIG
R. S. HINES, *Chairman*
Cleveland

EDUCATIONAL READINGS

BRUECKNER, L. J., AND CUTRIGHT, PRUDENCE. *Dictation in Teaching Punctuation*, *EER*, 4:265–69, November, 1927.

Charts and tables show comparisons between dictation and non-dictation groups. The authors conclude that the systematic use of dictation exercises secures greater improvement in fourth-grade children's ability to use marks of punctuation that can be secured without the use of dictation exercises.

WEST, JOE H. *The Status and Training of Critic Teachers*, *EAS*, 13:563–67, November, 1927.

Critic teachers, in general, have shorter tenure, less academic training, lower salaries in relation to their training, and less professional training than do other teachers in the same institutions. "At present critic teachers seem to use their job as a stepping stone to something more attractive."

MEAD, CYRUS D. *Visual vs. Teaching Methods—An Experiment*, *EAS*, 13:505–18, November, 1927.

In teaching nature life, customs of peoples, and industries, it was found that elementary children learned most from the use of motion pictures with preliminary and follow-up discussions; next best, by films alone; and least best, by the ordinary classroom procedure.

McMILLAN, T. H. *English Courses in Teachers Colleges*, *PJE*, 5:146–52, November, 1927.

Teachers colleges and normal schools are showing a distinct and increasing tendency to develop their own courses in English. Fifteen years ago the English courses were all such as are found in the liberal-arts colleges. "The specifically professional material is clearly growing. It includes a combination of content and method the proportions and blending of which are still far from established." The indications are that more and more of the courses will thus combine content and method to the advantage of both.

MUMFORD, W. B. *The Project Method of Teaching in a School for Natives in Central Africa*, *FE*, 5:167–70, November, 1927.

Few educators have such an excellent opportunity for experimentation as the author, who was appointed head master of

NOTE.—The abbreviations used in this issue are: *EER*, Elementary English Review; *EAS*, Educational Administration and Supervision; *PJE*, Peabody Journal of Education; and *FE*, The Forum of Education.

a school for sons of native chiefs in Tanganyiha Territory, Central Africa. He selected as his aim "to train the individual, firstly, to satisfy the economic needs of the community, and, secondly, to develop his own peculiar powers in order that he may live as happy a life as possible." He chose for his curriculum, agriculture, animal husbandry, citizenship, hygiene, native handicrafts, and the three R's. The administration of this curriculum makes an interesting story.

IN PAPER COVERS

MARSTON, LESLIE RAY. *Directory of Research in Child Development.* Washington, D. C., National Research Council, 1927. 36 pp. (Reprint and Circular Series of the National Research Council)

This directory was compiled as one result of a survey, conducted by the National Research Council to determine the kinds of research now in progress in the United States and Canada which has for its purpose the investigation of the problems of early childhood. This is not an honor list of distinguished scientists, but it is rather a list of workers who are engaged in investigations in this field.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. *The Scheduling of Teachers' Salaries.* Washington, Research Division, National Education Association, 1927. 192 pp. (Research Bulletin, Vol. 5, No. 3)

Salary scheduling in terms of common practice, economic demands of teachers, wages paid unskilled labor, real wages, and standard of living is critically examined. The work is replete with well-presented facts that make it a valuable handbook for any who are interested in school finance. It contains 109 annotated bibliographical references.

LUTES, O. S., AND SAMUELSON, AGNES. *A Method for Rating the Drill Provisions in Arithmetic Textbooks.* Iowa City, Iowa, University of Iowa, 1926. 148 pp. (Monographs in Education, First Series, No. 3)

It is now quite proper for the prospective user of a textbook to know in detail how well the text measures up to certain objective standards and how it compares in these things with other texts. This monograph presents an analysis of the drill material found in six sets of arithmetic textbooks. A careful reader realizes the great amount of material which has been omitted from the monograph. The authors, too, are conscious of this, and almost every page cautions one against considering the analysis as anything more than an example of what can be done. In short, the aim is to present a scheme adaptable and flexible enough to meet the needs of textbook committees. In this we think the authors succeeded.

GOETCH, EDWARD WILLIAM. *The Kindergarten as a Factor in Elementary School Achievement and Progress.* Iowa City, Iowa, University of Iowa, 1926. 47 pp. (University of Iowa Studies in Education, Vol. III, No. 4)

Based upon a comparative study of the school progress of 968 pupils in the first six grades who had had kindergarten training with an equal number of their classmates who had not, Mr. Goetch concludes that the kindergarten is an "important factor in later elementary-school achievement." It not only enables the pupils who have had that training to undertake the work of the first grade successfully, but it assists them to maintain almost unbroken progress through the first six grades. In arriving at this conclusion he considers the differences of chronological and mental ages; the scores procured by each group on certain standardized tests; and the facts of educational age, of age-grade relations, and of promotion.

THOMPSON, CLEM O., AND DALE, RUSSELL. *Some Factors Affecting the Scholastic Success of Teachers College Freshmen.* Muncie, Indiana, The Ball Teachers College, 1927. 32 pp. (Indiana State Normal School Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 4)

Intelligence scores and school marks of Freshmen enrolled in the Ball Teachers College during the first two quarters of 1925-26 and 1926-27 were compared. Students who expected to use their credits at the end of the Freshman year toward securing teaching certificates made higher grades than those who expected to use their credits at the end of four years of college. During the year 1926-27 a system of advising students and of warning those with relatively low marks was inaugurated. The number of failures during this year was 5 percent less than the preceding year. From these data the authors conclude that the immediacy of need for credits and the receipt of warning and counsel from members of the faculty tend to produce improvement in class marks.

BOOKS TO READ

DAWSON, EDGAR, AND OTHERS. *Teaching the Social Studies.* New York, Macmillan Company, 1927. xvi+405 pp.

Eight of the sixteen chapters of this book were written by Dr. Dawson. The others, dealing with geography, biology, psychology, economics, political science, ethics, history, and sociology were written by Brown, Holmes, Gates, Ely, Munro, Tufts, Johnson, and Giddings, respectively. The title of the book is somewhat misleading, for compartively few definite suggestions are given to assist the teacher in guiding her pupils so they may attain some degree of interest and efficiency in the study of social problems. The two short chapters on "The Curriculum" and "Methods of Teaching the Social Studies" are both subjective in their nature, and no reference is made to the various investigations by Rugg, Bagley, Hockett, Horn, and others.

MORPHET, EDGAR L. *The Measurement and Interpretation of School Building Utilization.* New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. vii+102 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 264)

This investigation is confined to the utilization of school buildings during regular school hours and is not concerned with the type or adequacy of equipment and housing facilities. Sixty-four schools located in six different states are included in the study. In the interpretation of the data gathered from these schools certain techniques, including three formulas, were developed. Because capacity, or school-building utilization, particularly with reference to junior and senior high-school buildings, is such an elastic term the methods and techniques developed in this study should aid school administrators in determining the status of a given school building.

TRUSLER, HARRY RAYMOND. *Essentials of School Law.* Milwaukee, The Bruce Publishing Company, 1927. 478 pp.

The purpose of this book, as expressed in the Preface, is, "to place within the hands of every school official a systematic treatment of those questions of law which present themselves most frequently in his professional work." In the selection of his material the author has included that body of common law and statutory instruction which is common to all the states and which enters into practically every controversy affecting schools and teachers. More than fifteen hundred court decisions are alphabetically arranged with the page references. In the use of these decisions extensive excerpts appear in order that the reader may see the reasoning involved in the decisions. The material and style of presentation adapt the volume well for use in school law courses in college and universities. School administrators as well as other school officials will also find in this book material relating to practically all the legal cases which may arise.

THOMAS, CHARLES SWAIN. *The Teaching of English in the Secondary School.* Revised edition. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1927. xxii+604 pp.

In an attempt to keep abreast of the changes in high-school English, Dr. Thomas has published a revised edition of his book which first appeared a decade ago. Accordingly, many changes have been incorporated in the text; two new chapters—"The Teaching of Spelling" and "Scales and Measures"—added; and fuller bibliographies and study questions given at the end of each chapter. Although the bibliographies include titles of a number of the better-known researches in English and reading, little consideration is accorded them in discussions. We suspect a printer's error in the statement that the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* has been superseded by *The International Index.* An uninformed proofreader probably deleted "Supplement" after "Literature."

A STUDY OF SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS IN OHIO

(*Continued from page 9*)

The superintendents to whom questionnaires were sent were asked to list desirable traits and qualifications for membership on a school board. The trait having the greatest frequency was open-mindedness; "a good education" ranked second; and "interest in children and in schools for them" ranked third. Superintendents were also asked to indicate the qualifications of the most valuable and the least valuable member on their school boards. Inasmuch as the

laws of Ohio, as is true of the laws of most states, give large discretionary powers to boards of education, the qualifications of those on whom these powers are conferred should be of major interest to all concerned with the welfare of the public schools of the State.

NEW TESTS

The Bureau of Educational Research and Service, of the University of Iowa, has recently published the Iowa General Information Test in American History. This test consists of one hundred completion or recall items arranged in order of difficulty. Three widely used texts provided a basis for the selection of the materials. Validity, reliability, objectivity, and economy are claimed for the tests. The reliability coefficient is .95. Economy is effected by an adaption which makes it possible to use the same booklet an indefinite number of times.

Another test has been added to the growing ranks of the Columbia Research Bureau Tests. This one is an American History Test, by Professor H. J. Carman, T. N. Barrows, and Ben D. Wood, for use in high schools and for beginning college classes. It consists of four parts—a true-false section of eighty items, a matching test of fifty items, a multiple-choice test of fifty items, and a completion test of twenty sentences—and is a worthy addition to the field.

The test is designed to measure the ability to draw conclusions and inferences as well as the ability to remember facts. The fields of political, social, economical, religious, and educational history are all represented in the tests. Percentile norms for high-school Seniors and college Freshmen are provided. As usual, the publisher, the World Book Company supplies full directions for using the tests, scoring keys, and class-record sheets.

When wishing to give either an intelligence test or an achievement test, the teacher or supervisor sometimes finds it difficult to discover just what tests of the sort desired are available, where the norms are given, and how they are expressed. Miss Gambrill and her collaborator, Miss Farwell, have arranged *An Analytical List of Kindergarten-Primary Tests of Intelligence and Achievement in Kindergarten and First Three Grades* in which they have admirably met such difficulties. They have listed under each test the author's name, the nature of the items included in the tests, the sort of norms or standards set, the grades to which the tests may be given, the time needed, and the name and address of the publisher, the date of copyright, and the price.

Only group tests are given. The first section of the booklet is concerned with tests of intelligence; the second section, with tests of achievement which include scales for arithmetic, citizenship, drawing, handwriting, language, reading, and spelling. Five composite tests complete the list.

One is surprised at the number and variety of standardized measures available for use in the first three grades. One wishes that the authors might have added to their contribution some sort of evaluation of each test. In a trial form this list was used during the past summer at several universities and was enthusiastically received by teachers and students.